

Tax Reform in the Commonwealth

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Introduction

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I. Basic Principles, with Illustrations

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I.A. Policy Objectives: Efficiency and Equity

- Normative economic analysis of public policy (all policies, not just taxation) is grounded on the idea that what ultimately matters is the well-being (“welfare”) of the population.
- Impacts on everything else – industries, regions, environment, employment – are possible means to this end, not ends themselves.

The Meaning of Efficiency and Equity

- Improving “efficiency” means raising economic well-being. (Making people better off.)
- “Equity” means insuring fairness. (Appropriate limits on inequality, equal treatment of equals.)

Efficiency

As a general rule: resource allocation should be directed by market forces, not by fiscal (dis)incentives.

There are exceptions: When there are market “failures” (public goods, natural monopolies, missing markets), policy interventions may be needed to promote efficiency.

(Almost) All Taxes (and Subsidies) Distort Incentives

Examples:

- (i) work incentives;
- (ii) investment, employment, and production incentives;
- (iii) locational incentives.

Second-best Policies

- All tax/subsidy policies have *some* incentive/efficiency effects. What is the *least* inefficient of many inefficient policy alternatives?
- The problem of “second best”: No “ideal” choices. Better analysis can inform policy.

Are Efficiency Effects Big or Small?

- Taxes (or subsidies) that have minimal allocative effects (on work, employment, investment, location, consumption) tend to be less harmful, on efficiency grounds.
- Long-run effects are larger than short-run: important when considering relatively “slow” adjustments like locational choices, savings/investment, industrial development.

Equity

- Fairness and equity have many aspects, including:
 - (a) “Vertical equity” and economic inequality.
 - (b) “Horizontal equity” (equal treatment of equals) and economic neutrality.

What Can Economic Analysis Say About Equity?

- Economic analysis cannot itself say what is equitable.
- But it can provide insights into the distributional or equity effects of policies.
- A prime example: Tax incidence analysis.

Example: Who really bears the burden of taxes on business?

Statutory tax incidence: Businesses *collect* taxes on sales, business profits, payrolls.

Economic incidence: Real burden of taxation does *not* fall on businesses as such.

Business owners, workers, and consumers bear the real incidence in the form of lower profits, lower earnings, or higher prices.

Alas, no free lunches: *people* must inevitably bear the cost of government.

Assessing the Distributional Effects of Taxes

- Burdens that are hidden are just as real as those that are visible.
- It seems difficult to demonstrate the fairness of taxes whose incidence is unknown.
- Better analysis can help to inform policy.

Considering Equity and Efficiency Together, 1: Fiscal Competition

- People, consumers, and businesses can work, buy, and invest in different locations.
- Mobility means taxes affect locational choices (efficiency), and constrains the redistributive capacity of state/local governments (equity).
- These effects (efficiency losses, constraints on redistribution) likely more important in long run. Short-run/long-run tradeoffs.

Considering Equity and Efficiency Together, 2: Tax Expenditures

- Tax expenditures: specialized tax breaks are like selective subsidies.
- Likely to interfere with efficiency/neutrality.
- Equity consequences: often very opaque.
- Should businesses compete on cost, innovation, consumer satisfaction – or on ability to obtain special preferences not available to other firms/industries?

I.B. Policy Constraints: Cash-Flow/ Intertemporal Budget Constraints

- Two sides to the fiscal accounts: Revenues and Expenditures
- Period-by-period cash flow constraint:

$$E_t = R_t + B_t \quad (\text{Spending} = \text{Revenues} + \text{Borrowing})$$

The Intertemporal Budget Constraint

- Intertemporal linkages: Today's borrowing (or savings) affects tomorrow's feasible choices.
- The intertemporal budget constraint:
$$PV(E_0, \dots, E_t \dots) + B_0 = PV(R_0, \dots, R_t, \dots)$$
- The PV of current and future expenditures and outstanding net liabilities as of today MUST equal the PV of current and future revenues.

Lessons from the GBC

- Tax and expenditure sides of fiscal accounts are distinct, but linked.
- The RHS of the GBC contains all tax and nontax revenues.
- The LHS of the GBC contains all expenditures.
- Intertemporal linkages: debt, investment, reserve funds, deferred compensation, etc.

What is “tax reform”?

- Conceptually, “tax reform” means changing terms *within* the RHS of the GBC. Examples:
Increase sales taxes with *offsetting* reductions in income taxes.
Remove *special* tax preferences, use added revenue for *general* rate reductions.
Increase nontax revenues with *offsetting* reductions in taxes.

Tax Reform Analysis

- Each of these (and many other) possible tax reforms raise equity and efficiency questions.
- They do *not* (as posed) raise questions about whether revenues (and expenditures) should be higher or lower.

Expenditure Analysis

- Focusing on tax reform in this sense leaves plenty of work to do.
- But expenditure analysis is equally important!
- Expenditures *can* be, *should* be, but rarely *are* subjected to careful economic analysis. (A topic for another day?)

Summary

- Basic economic criteria for policy evaluation: efficiency and equity.
- Policies are made subject to constraints. These define what is *feasible*, and force tradeoffs.
- Tax and expenditures each deserve careful analysis. Our focus today is tax reform.

II. Taxation in a Changing Economic Environment: Some Issues for Today (and Tomorrow?)



The Changing Context of Tax Analysis

- As economic and fiscal environments change, different issues attract attention.
- Three examples:
 - A. Changing industrial structure (service/non-service sectors).
 - B. Revenue volatility.
 - C. Competition for human and nonhuman capital.

A. Growth of the Service Sector and Sales Taxation

- Kentucky's sales tax base substantially *exempts* services, but *does* tax many B2B transactions.
- *Almost half* of sales tax revenue in Kentucky comes from taxation of sales to businesses. It is therefore by no means “just” a tax on consumption.

Economic Consequences of Current Sales Tax

- Exemption of services provided to households distorts consumption and production patterns.
- Taxation of sales to businesses also distorts production and consumption decisions.
- Neither aspect of this system compares favorably on efficiency/equity grounds with a simple uniform tax on all consumption.

The Current Sales Tax, in Outline

	Tangible Goods	Services
Sold to Consumers:	Taxable	Not Taxable
Sold to Firms:	Taxable	Not Taxable

The Structure of a Uniform Sales Tax on Consumption

	Tangible Goods	Services
Sold to Consumers:	Taxable	Taxable
Sold to Firms:	Not Taxable	Not Taxable

B. Revenue Volatility

- Revenues have fallen sharply during current economic crisis.
- Shortfalls have been partially mitigated through depletion of rainy-day fund, Federal assistance.
- Some expenditure-side adjustment. (How harmful are expenditure disruptions?)

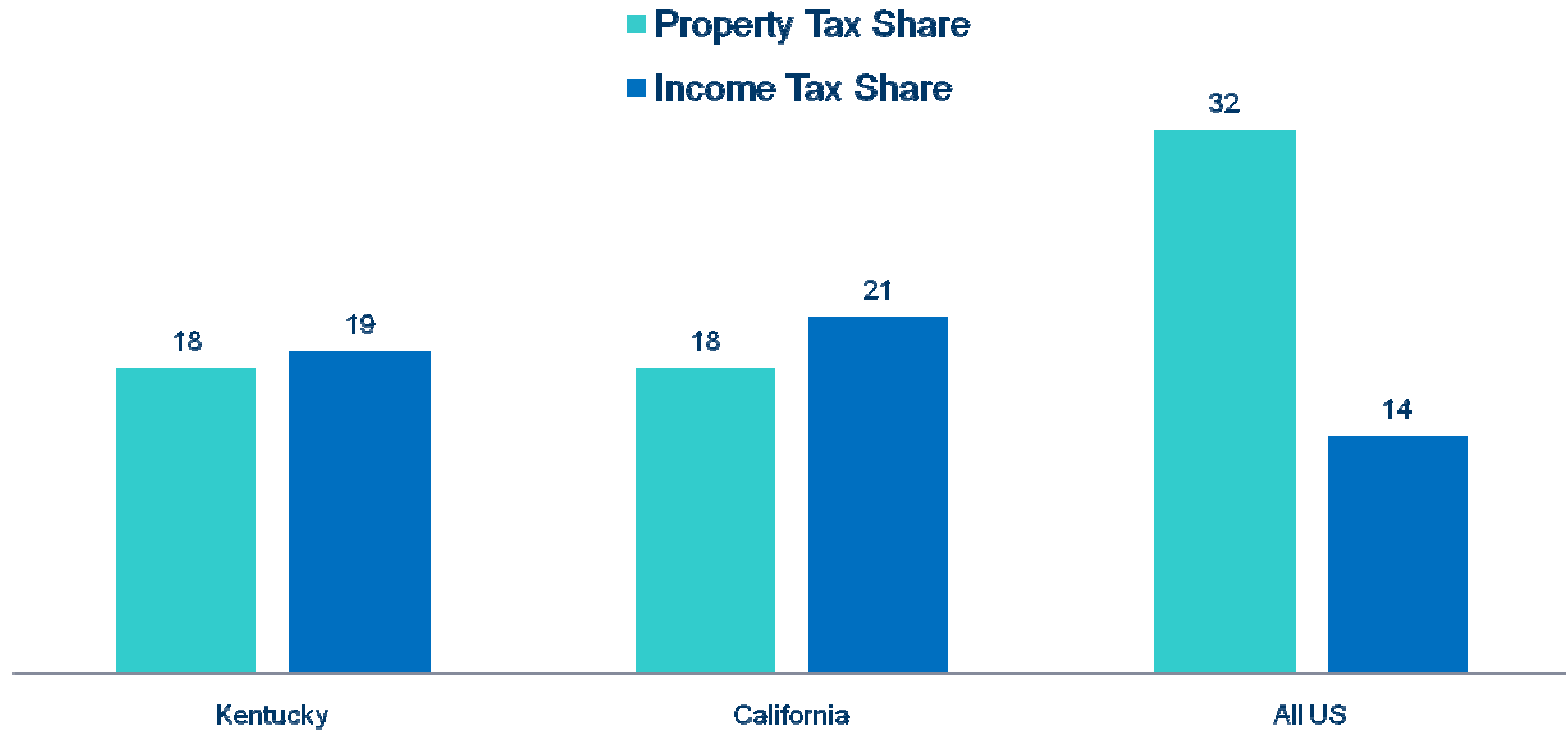
Can Revenues Be Stabilized?

- Rebuilding financial reserves can help to insure against future downturns.
- So might a change in Kentucky's revenue structure: Not all taxes are equally sensitive to economic fluctuations.

The Tax Mix and Revenue Volatility

- Kentucky, like California, differs from most states in exceptionally heavy reliance on income taxes and only modest reliance on property taxes. (State + local in KY, state only in CA.)
- Income taxes are more volatile than property taxes.

Sources of State-Local Revenues: Kentucky, California, and All US. (Percentage Shares, 2006)



How Kentucky Could Rebalance the Income/Property Tax Mix

- Option 1: Increase state property taxes, reduce state income taxes.
- Option 2: Cut assistance to localities, allow/encourage greater local reliance on property taxes.

An aside: Does HB44 constrain local governments? Maybe, maybe not. We have run a 30-year experiment, but nobody bothered to keep the lab notes!

Weighing the Options

- A potential efficiency/equity tradeoff.
- With highly diverse regions, there are potential efficiency gains from adapting policies to local conditions. (Option 2.)
- A more centralized approach (option 1) may sacrifice efficiency gains, but concentration of resources in Frankfort can help to finance transfers from “haves” to “have-nots”.

C. Competition for Human and Nonhuman Capital

- Kentucky is a small state in a large economy.
- Ability to transfer income is probably limited, in LR, by “migration constraint”.
- Heavy reliance on income taxes, in LR, probably reduces proportion of high-income households in Kentucky.
- What alternatives? How would these affect LR development?



III. Conclusion



The Big Questions

- What tax policies can promote economic development in Kentucky?
- Can efficiency be improved? Does greater efficiency harm equity?
- What tax policies best promote equity? At what efficiency cost?

A Modest Proposal

- Policy debates can be informed by better policy analysis.
- The need for policy analysis is perennial.
- A modest proposal: Can the state and its academic institutions work together to improve data collection and capacity for policy analysis?

References

For this speaker's previous discussions of issues mentioned here, please consult:

1. Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 6 in *Financing State and Local Government*. (Frankfort: Long Term Policy Research Center, 2001).
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3. "Local Government Finance in Kentucky: Time for Reform?", *Kentucky Annual Economic Report*. (Lexington: Center for Economic and Business Research, 2007).
4. "Long Term Fiscal Risks Facing Kentucky: The Federal Dimension". (Presented to Kentucky Long Term Policy Research Center Annual Conference, Covington, 2008.)
5. "Intergovernmental Transfers to Local Governments". (Cambridge: Lincoln Institute of Land Policy, forthcoming.)